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TRANSLATION AS A BASIS FOR CONTRASTIVE LINGUISTIC ANALYSIS.

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LANGUAGES SHOW CHARACTERISTIC DIFFERENCES IN THE WAY IN WHICH THEY ORGANIZE OBJECTIVE EXPERIENCE AND THESE DIFFERENCES ARE REFLECTED IN THE FORMAL AND SEMANTIC PATTERNING OF EACH LANGUAGE. A CONTRASTIVE APPROACH TO LANGUAGE LEARNING WHICH PAYS PARTICULAR ATTENTION TO POINTS OF FORMAL AND FUNCTIONAL DIFFERENCE BETWEEN ELEMENTS OF THE NATIVE LANGUAGE AND THOSE OF THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE WILL HELP THE LEARNER TO COME TO TERMS WITH AND RESOLVE THE DIFFICULTIES ENCOUNTERED. ONE LANGUAGE MAY MAKE SEMANTIC DISTINCTIONS NOT MADE IN ANOTHER, I.E., IT MAY DIVIDE INTO SEVERAL CATEGORIES WHAT ANOTHER LANGUAGE SUBSUMES UNDER ONE CATEGORY. SUCH DIVERGENCE IS OFTEN FOUND ON THE LEVEL OF EVERYDAY SPEECH (E.G., ENGLISH "BRUSH"--GERMAN "BUERSTE"/"PINSEL"/"BESEN"). LEXICAL ITEMS MAY DIFFER IN THEIR COLLOCATIONAL RANGE (E.G., "WIDE"/"WEIT"). ASPECTUAL DIFFERENCES EXPRESSED GRAMMATICALLY IN ENGLISH ARE OFTEN EXPRESSED BY LEXICAL MEANS IN GERMAN (AS IN THE QUESTIONS, "HAVE YOU BEEN THERE"--"WAREN SIE SCHON MAL DA." "WERE YOU THERE"--"WAREN SIE (DAMALS, ZU DER ZEIT) DA"). AT AN ADVANCED STAGE OF LANGUAGE LEARNING TRANSLATION MAY BE AN EMPIRICAL MEANS OF COMING TO TERMS WITH SEMANTIC AND SYNTACTIC DIFFERENCES. THE CONFRONTATION OF A COMPLETE UTTERANCE IN THE NATIVE LANGUAGE WITH ALL THE POSSIBLE CONTEXTUAL EQUIVALENTS IN THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE WILL SHOW FORMAL AND FUNCTIONAL DIFFERENCES AND HELP TO CREATE IN THE LEARNER'S MIND A LINGUISTIC AWARENESS WHICH WILL MAKE THE ACQUISITION OF THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE MORE MEANINGFUL. THIS ARTICLE APPEARED IN THE "INTERNATIONAL REVIEW OF APPLIED LINGUISTICS IN LANGUAGE TEACHING," VOLUME 4, NUMBER 3, SEPTEMBER 1966, PAGES 175-182. (AUTHOR)

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TRANSLATION AS A BASIS FOR CONTRASTIVE LINGUISTIC ANALYSIS

H. W. Kirkwood

Comme l'a signalé Whorf, les différentes langues découpent la réalité de maniéres diverses. L'analyse contrastée pratiquée à tous les niveaux de langage représente un puissant moyen pédagogique pour donner à l'élève une mesure de contrôle cognitif de la structure de la langue étrangère. Des erreurs conceptuelles résultant d'interférence sur un plan sémantique sont tout aussi répandues que les erreurs grammaticales et encore plus nuisibles à la communication que celles-ci. Grace à l'exemple de quelques mots d'un emploi quotidien en anglais et en allemand, l'on peut se rendre compte des difficultés de divergence (plusieurs termes en langue-2 pour un seul terme en langue-1) et de convergence qui s'élèvent entre les langues.

Un moyen élégant et systématique de traiter les contrastes syntaxiques et sémantiques, c'est la confrontation d'une phrase dans la langue maternelle avec toutes les traductions acceptables en langue étrangére. Leur analyse en éléments constituants équivalents met en évidence les contrastes syntaxiques; l'analyse des dénotations, connotations et contextes des mots individuels révèle leurs différentes structures sémantiques aussi bien que syntaxiques. A un niveau relativement avancé, la traduction systématique—pourvu qu'elle soit utilisée en pleine connaissance de cause — peut contribuer puissamment à une prise de conscience, par l'élève, de la structure profonde d'une langue étrangère.

Wie Whorf gezeigt hat, drücken verschiedene Sprachen die Wirklichkeit auf verschiedene Weise aus. Die kontrastierende Analyse, ausgeübt auf allen Sprachniveaus, ist ein wirksames pädagogisches Mittel, dem Schüler einen Maßstab erkennender Kontrolle der fremdsprachlichen Struktur zu geben. Fehler beim Verstehen, die durch Interferenzen im semantischen Gebiet verursacht werden, sind genauso verbreitet wie Grammatikfehler und für die Kommunikation noch unangenehmer. Am Beispiel nur einiger Wörter des täglichen Gebrauchs aus dem Englischen und dem Deutschen kann man sich die Schwierigkeiten der Divergenz (mehrere Ausdrücke in Sprache-2 für nur einen in Sprache-1) und der Konvergenz klarmachen, die sich zwischen den Sprachen erheben.

Ein elegantes und systematisches Mittel, syntaktische und semantische Unterschiede zu behandeln, ist die Gegenüberstellung eines Satzes in der Muttersprache mit allen annehmbaren Übersetzungen in die Fremdsprache. Ihre Aufteilung in kleinste Bestandselemente zeigt deutlich die syntaktischen Unterschiede; die Analyse der Bezeichnungen, Nebenbedeutungen und des Kontextes der einzelnen Wörter zeigt deren unterschiedliche semantische Struktur so gut wie die syntaktische. Auf relativ fortgeschrittenem Niveau kann die systematische Übersetzung — vorausgesetzt, daß sie in voller Kenntnis der Sache unternommen wird — kräftig dazu beitragen, dem Schüler die tiefere Struktur einer Fremdsprache bewußt zu machen.

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In teaching a foreign language we must give due consideration to the fact of the mother tongue [1]). To quote Whorf: "We cut up and organize the spread and flow of events as we do, largely because, through our mother tongue, we are parties to an agreement to do so ... Languages differ not only in how they build their sentences, but also in how they break down nature to secure the elements to put in those sentences." [2])

Our native language presents to us the world of experience in a particular way, as things, states, processes, actions. Some would go as far as to maintain that it superimposes upon us a particular view of the world and conditions our thinking. A more moderate view would be that it suggests to us a particular way of thinking. This would seem to be the view held by Carroll when he writes: "Insofar as languages differ in the ways they encode objective experience, language users tend to sort out and distinguish experiences according to the categories provided by their respective languages." [3]) We can detach ourselves from the particular way of analyzing and organizing experience only at the expense of some effort, for instance by learning a second language. In the process of acquiring a foreign language we will continually be coming across differences in the way of conceptualizing objective experience; for speakers of a foreign language conceptual errors – especially on the level of everyday speech – are just as common as grammatical errors and certainly, from the point of view of communication, more serious [4]).

On a phonological, syntactical and semantic level, interference from the mother tongue may be taking place. A contrastive analysis will show up the points of difference and conflict, and it is to these points that language teaching should pay particular attention. This approach to language study has much in common with what Carroll [5]) refers to as the 'cognitive code-learning theory', according to which "learning a language is a process of acquiring conscious control of the phonological, grammatical, and lexical patterns of a second language, largely through study and analysis of the patterns as a body of knowledge." He goes on to say that "In learning a skill, it is often the case that conscious attention to the critical features of the skill and understanding of them will facilitate learning." According to the cognitive code-learning theory, "provided the student has a proper degree of cognitive control over the structure

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[1]) Cf. H. J. Vermeer, Inhalt und Form – Gedanken zur Sprachlehre und Übersetzungsmethodik. *IRAL, 3.3*, 1965, 181.

[2]) *Language, thought, and reality. Selected writings of Benjamin Lee Whorf.* (ed. J. B. Carroll) New York/London, 1956, 240.

[3]) J. B. Carroll, Linguistic relativity, contrastive linguistics, and language learning. *IRAL, 1.1*, 1963, 12.

[4]) Cf. E. Leisi. Englische und deutsche Wortinhalte. Zonen der Deckung, Zonen der Verschiedenheit. *Wirkendes Wort, 12*, 1962, 140–150.

[5]) J. B. Carroll, Contribution of psychological theory and educational research to the teaching of foreign languages. *Mod. Lang. J., 49.5*, 1965, 278–280.

of the language, facility will develop automatically with the use of the language in meaningful situations."

With regard to words and their meanings, one language may make semantic distinctions not made in another, i. e. it may divide into several categories (e. g. several different words) what another language subsumes under one category (e. g. a single word). One does not have to look to abstract spheres of reference for conceptual divergences between languages. Such divergence is frequently found in everyday language, as the examples below will illustrate. Indeed, conceptual agreement or convergence is often found precisely in learned and scientific terms, whose contents are clearly defined and constitute part of a common, international body of culture.

For the student of a foreign language, the range of meaning covered by quite ordinary, everyday words is often difficult to grasp. In English a 'brush' is a 'brush', whether it is used for brushing teeth, hair, clothes, shoes, for scrubbing or sweeping a floor or for painting a picture. All of these different objects are subsumed under one category or semantic content to which the name 'brush' is assigned. The O. E. D. definition of 'brush' is accordingly: "implement of bristles, hair, wire, etc., set in wood etc. for scrubbing or sweeping; bunch of hairs etc. in straight handle, quill, etc. for painting etc." In German there is no general category 'brush', and hence no word covering all these different objects. More specific words are used, depending on shape, size, and purpose. In German one can speak of a *Zahnbürste, Haarbürste, Kleiderbürste, Schuhbürste,* and all of these *Bürsten* are felt by German speakers to have features in common. Similarity of name suggests similarity of the objects called by the name. These common features distinguish these *Bürsten* clearly in the mind of the German speaker from other objects called *Pinsel* and *Besen.* The dictionary definition of *Bürste* (Brockhaus) is "*Reinigungswerkzeug mit vielen Borsten*" (implement for cleaning with many bristles): the purpose,' cleaning', is stressed. For *Pinsel* it gives the definition "*Werkzeug aus einem Holzgriff mit eingesetzten Borsten zum Auftragen, Glätten, Streichen*" (implement of bristles set in a wooden handle for applying, smoothing, painting). The shape is more specific, and so too is the purpose. A painter's brush and a shaving brush are both *Pinsel.* A 'sweeping brush' is a *Besen,* which the dictionary accordingly defines specifically as a *Kehrwerkzeug* (implement for sweeping). Hence we see that English subsumes under the general category 'brush' what in German is assigned to separate, more specific categories. The English speaker learning German is faced with divergence, the German speaker learning English with convergence. An adequate visual presentation of the contents of *Bürste, Pinsel, Besen* to the English learner would have to take into account the fact that the contents of these expressions are subsumed in English under one content. Care would have to be taken to present them in situations that would bring out unambiguously the relevant conditions attaching to the use of each expression. Other examples of ordinary words where there is convergence and divergence are: 'chair' – *Sessel/ Stuhl;*

'cup' – *Tasse/Pokal; Fleisch* – 'meat'/'flesh'; 'fruit' – *Obst/Frucht; Schaum* – 'foam'/'froth'/'lather'; 'go' – *gehen/fahren.* On an abstract plane, the English verb 'to think, has acquired a wider range of meaning and application than German *denken,* and in different contexts will be rendered in German by a different verb or verbal phrase:

'Let me think' – *Lass mich mal nachdenken*; 'I don't think so' – *Ich glaube nicht*; 'What do you think?' – *Was meinst du?*; 'That's just what I think' – *Ich bin genau derselben Meinung*; 'I think it likely that...' – *Ich halte es für wahrscheinlich, daß ...*; 'I'll think it over' – *Ich werde es mir überlegen*; 'To think that it may be true' – *Wenn man bedenkt, daß es wahr sein könnte;* 'I wouldn't think of such a thing' – *So etwas käme mir überhaupt nicht in den Sinn.*

At a more advanced level of language learning, contrastive analysis through translation – translation as a means and not as an end in itself, and in small, but intensive doses – is a way of bringing to the student's attention points of difference and conflict on a semantic and syntactic level, of coming to grips with these differences and conflicts and to some extent of resolving them. The material selected for translation should be neutral prose rather than passages in a unique and idiosyncratic language bristling with stylistic problems.

A comparison of existing translations with the original might also be considered. The text in the mother tongue will give the information to be conveyed. Each utterance, – a sentence, say – would then be broken down into its constituents elements, into units of meaning, or 'clause elements'[6]), which may consist of single words, phrases, or phrasal verbs of the type 'put up with' ('He/put up with/it'), which form a lexical unit functioning as a semantic unit, and which may correspond to a single lexical item in the other language. The following sentence may serve to illustrate this stage of the analysis:

> 'The measures/were announced/at the EFTA meeting in Geneva/during the early hours of yesterday morning'.
> '*Die Maßnahmen/wurden/gestern in den frühen Morgenstunden/auf der Tagung der EFTA in Genf/angekündigt*'.

Following this analysis into constituent elements, one would then proceed to compare and contrast the formal and semantic structure of the original with that of the translation.

The meanings of words must be resolved into their constituent elements. It is not enough to say that A 'stands for' B, for both A and C in one language may stand for B in the other language. In German both *Kopf* and *Haupt* stand for or denote the part of the body called 'head' in English, but the words *Kopf* and *Haupt* each have special connotations and these connotations determine the possible occurrence of the words in context, i.e. their distribution or colloca-

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6) For the term 'clause element' see H.L. Kufner, *The grammatical structures of English and German.* Chicago, 1962, 9–12.

tion. Both *Kopf* and *Haupt* denote a part of the human body, but *Kopf* also connotes intellectual ability; hence it can be used in a metaphorical sense in contexts such as *ein gescheiter Kopf, Er behielt einen klaren Kopf*, where *Haupt* is not possible. Hence *Kopf* and *Haupt* are not interchangeable. In acquiring the meaning of a word we must consider what the word denotes, what it connotes, i. e. what special associations it calls forth, and the possible environments in which it may appear. In translation, denotation, connotation, and collocation must be borne in mind as the constituent elements of the meaning of an expression.

The following sentence may give some indication of the kind of contrastive analysis that might be carried out:

The boy / found / a fat wallet / in the street / yesterday.
Der Junge/ hat/ gestern/ auf der Straße/ eine dicke Brieftasche/ gefunden.
Der Junge/ fand/ gestern/ auf der Straße/ eine dicke Brieftasche.
Der Junge/ hat/ gestern/ eine dicke Brieftasche/ auf der Straße/ gefunden.
Der Junge/ fand/ gestern/ eine dicke Brieftasche/ auf der Straße.
Gestern/ hat/ der Junge/ eine dicke Brieftasche/ auf der Straße/ gefunden.
Gestern/ fand/ der Junge/ eine dicke Brieftasche/ auf der Straße.
Eine dicke Brieftasche/ hat/ der Junge/ gestern/ auf der Straße/ gefunden.
Eine dicke Brieftasche/ fand/ der Junge/ gestern/ auf der Straße.
Auf der Straße/ hat/ der Junge/ gestern/ eine dicke Brieftasche/ gefunden.
Auf der Straße/ fand/ der Junge/ gestern/ eine dicke Brieftasche.

In the English sentence, a statement as opposed to a question or dependent clause, we have the common construction subject-verb-object. Deviations from this order are rare. The position of 'boy' before the predicate has a syntactic function; it determines its role in the sentence as the grammatical subject. An interchange of the positions of 'boy' and 'wallet' would make no sense. The adverbials are in their normal position within the sentence, i. e. place before time. The adverbial 'yesterday' might be brought to the beginning of the sentence. In the German equivalents the finite form occupies the second position within the sentence, i. e. it is the second constituent element, no matter what transformation is carried out. The normal English sequence, subject-verb-object, does not apply to the order of clause elements in German. Any other clause element may precede the subject in the initial position. Owing to the feature of inflexion, subject and object may change places. Inversion of the order would not alter the relation between subject, verb and object; it would cause a shift of emphasis, i. e. 'It was a fat wallet the boy found ...'. Word order in English has a syntactic function; in German its function is to assign weights to the constituent parts of the train of thought. In the first six German sentences the word order may be called 'neutral'[7]), i. e. there is no particular emphasis on any

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[7]) Cf. J. Fourquet, Zur neuhochdeutschen Wortstellung, in *Das Ringen um eine neue deutsche Grammatik*, Darmstadt, 1962, 364.

constituent element. In the latter four it may be called 'expressive'[8]); the initial element carries heavy stress and acquires particular weight. In English, the grammatical subject tends to occupy the initial position. In the sentence I have just written and in a sentence like 'Yesterday he saw him' the adverbial modifiers 'In English' and 'yesterday' lie almost parenthetically outside the sentence frame. In speaking, this would be indicated by a 'break' in the flow of speech, and in writing, a comma might be inserted. Compare the sentences:

Rom wurde von Romulus gegründet. *Gegründet wurde Rom von Romulus.*	Rome was founded by Romulus.
Von Romulus wurde Rom gegründet.	It was Romulus who founded Rome.
Aus der Kindheit meiner Mutter will ich hier einiges aufzeichnen.	I am going to record here some events from my mother's childhood.
An den Sonntagen und in den Ferien kam sie nach Haus.	She came home on Sundays and in the holidays.
Den Zwiespalt, in den sie geriet, schlichtete sie selbst.	She herself resolved the conflict in which she found herself.

The sequence of the adverbials is the reverse of the normal English sequence, which is also illustrated by the example given on page 179. This is in keeping with a basic tendency of German word order: the more significant a clause element is and the closer its relation to the verb, the closer it lies to the end of the clause. In the case of many verbs, e. g. verbs of motion, the adverbial of place is a necessary complement of the verb, e. g. *Er fährt im Sommer mit seiner Frau nach München.* Even where it is not a necessary complement of the verb, the adverbial of place tends to be put at the end of the clause, e. g. *Er hat gestern den ganzen Tag im Büro gearbeitet* ('He was working in the office all day yesterday'). As in English, adverbials of time may occupy the initial position, e. g. *Gestern hat er den ganzen Tag im Büro gearbeitet* ('Yesterday he was working in the office all day').

Having resolved the sample sentence into its constituent or 'clause' elements on page 179, we may now begin to analyze and compare the structure of these elements themselves. We note that the English adjective 'fat' in 'a fat wallet' is rendered in German by *dick, eine dicke Brieftasche.* The German adjective *dick* may be used without restriction of both persons and things: *ein dicker Mann, ein dickes Buch*[8]). The English adjectives 'fat' and 'thick' tend to be restricted in their use to persons and things respectively. In the above sentence it is in collocation with the word 'wallet', i. e. a thing, and assumes the special connotation of 'rich in content' which it has, for instance in the collocation 'fat land'. In the German translation this connotation is implicit in the expression *eine dicke Brief-*

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[8]) Cf. E. Leisi. *Der Wortinhalt. Seine Struktur im Deutschen und Englischen.* 2nd ed., Heidelberg, 1960, 42.

tasche, and there is no need to bring it out by other formal means. The adjectives 'fat', 'thick' and *dick* differ in their distribution, in their collocational range. The adjectives 'wide' and *weit* also differ in their collocational range: 'a wide square' – *ein weiter Platz*, 'a wide plane' – *eine weite Ebene*, 'a wide hole' – *ein weites Loch*, but a 'wide plank' is *ein breites Brett*. The English adjective 'wide' may be used of solid objects, but not the German *weit*. Certain adjectives may be used only alongside certain nouns, and certain verbs may take only a certain range of subjects or objects. Deviations from these normal 'conditions of use' may achieve special effects: 'an aged oak' – *eine bejahrte Eiche*. The fact that words tend to occur in habitual collocation is a source of metaphor. If they are taken from their habitual environment and transferred to an environment where they are not normally applicable, a special effect is achieved. The word brings with it the associations of its usual environment. The metaphor ceases to be a metaphor when we are no longer conscious that it has been transferred from one sphere to another, i. e. it has acquired a new habitual collocation.

The word *Knabe*, which also denotes 'boy', has connotations which refer it to other contexts. Other examples of words in English and German with the same denotation, but different connotations are 'youth' – *Jüngling* (derogatory, connoting immaturity), 'schoolmaster' – *Schulmeister* (derogatory, connoting pedantry), 'friend' – *Freund* (a close personal friend). The latter example is a frequent source of error and embarrassment: 'I made a lot of friends during my short stay' – *Während meines kurzen Aufenthaltes habe ich viele Bekanntschaften gemacht*. The study of connotation will help to reveal the emotive aspects of meaning.

In the German translation the English verb 'found' is rendered by the German *finden*. However, *finden* has a narrower range of meaning than 'find'. In other contexts it will be rendered by different verbs in German:
'I found him at home' (='I came across') – *Ich traf ihn zu Hause an.*
'I'll find you a chair' (='get') – *Ich werde Ihnen einen Stuhl besorgen.*
'Find it' – *Such's, bis du's gefunden hast.*

In the German translation simple and compound past forms are interchangeable in the given context. There is an option. Where either of two forms may appear in a given context we may speak of an 'opposition' between the forms. In English the indication of a point in time excludes the use of the compound past. In the sentences 'Were you there?' and 'Have you been there?', both simple and compound past forms are possible in the context 'there'. There is an opposition between the two forms, and they may be compared from the point of view of the aspectual differences conveyed by each form. The German translations *Waren Sie (damals, zu der Zeit) da (dabei)*?, and *Waren Sie schon mal (jemals) da?* bring out by lexical means, i. e. adverbs, an aspectual difference which in English is expressed grammatically, i. e. by a different verb form. Compare: 'I am working' – *Ich arbeite gerade* or *Ich bin am Arbeiten*; 'When we stepped onto the

platform the train came in' – *Als wir den Bahnsteig betraten, fuhr der Zug ein*; 'When we stepped onto the platform, the train was coming in' .. *fuhr der Zug gerade ein*; 'He was just leaving when ...' *Er wollte gerade gehen, als ...*; 'He just left' (*Er ist einfach gegangen*). In the last examples the meaning of 'just' is modified by the grammatical context. Sometimes aspect in German remains implicit in the context of situation where in English it is explicit in the grammatical construction, e. g. 'He was laughing when I entered the room'
'He laughed when I entered the room'
Er lachte, als ich in das Zimmer eintrat.

The insights yielded by descriptive linguistics can be of great value in practical language inst uction at all levels. However, there would seem to be a gulf between linguistic theory and its application in teaching. One of the foremost tasks of applied linguistics is to bridge the gulf by bringing to light points of difference and conflict between languages and developing instructional methods which may help resolve the difficulties encountered. Visual aids and the language laboratory will not be meaningful instructional tools until the findings of linguistic theory have been adequately evaluated. The traditional prose translation exercise which tends to dwell upon points of particular interest and leaves the kind of structural problems here discussed to resolve themselves is not an efficient and effective way of alerting the student to the real difficulties he will continually be faced with. If we can develop linguistic awareness in the learner, the acquisition of a foreign language will no longer be a haphazard accumulation of facts about the language laboriously processed into acceptable shape through years of trial and error. It will become a meaningful restructuring and rearticulation of experience. Contrastive syntactic and semantic study through translation, of the sort described in this paper, constitutes a solid empirical basis on which to build cognitive control over the structure of a language; "facility will develop with the use of the language in meaningful situations."

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